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The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship of social class and other characteristics of foster parents to the parental acceptance of foster children. Foster parents involved in a larger study were asked to complete the Family Information Questionnaire (FIQ) and the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale (PPAS). Demographic data and an acceptance score were obtained for 79 subjects.

It was hypothesized that middle-class foster parents would score significantly higher on the PPAS than lower-class foster parents. The results indicated that there was not a significant social class difference in parental acceptance among this sample of foster parents. Sex, education level, and length of marriage were also found not to be significantly discriminating of parental acceptance.

Results from a stepwise multiple regression analysis indicated that social class contributed slightly to the explanation of the variance of parental acceptance. Four variables indicative of familiarity with child care explained the majority of the explained variance of parental acceptance. Sex of the parent was also entered into the regression equation indicating that foster mothers scored higher on the PPAS than foster fathers.

It was concluded that social class and other characteristics did not differentiate foster parents in terms of

their parental acceptance. Familiarity with child care appeared to be more important than social class in the explanation of the variance of parental acceptance. Child care experience was found to be predictive of parental acceptance, although the amount of variance explained with the stepwise multiple regression analysis was rather small. Further research was suggested with attention paid to psychological variables, such as motivation to foster children, and their relationships to parental acceptance of foster children.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF SOCIAL CLASS AND OTHER VARIABLES TO PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE AMONG FOSTER PARENTS

by

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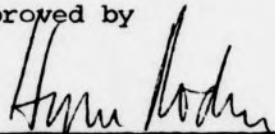

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APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over the past half-century there have been a variety of studies reporting relationships between social class and parental child-rearing patterns and attitudes. Overall, it appears that there are important social class differences in child-rearing patterns, not only in the United States but in other countries as well.

These studies have generally indicated more acceptance and equalitarianism in the parent-child relationships in the middle class and more emphasis upon maintaining order in the working or lower class. Differences in child rearing have been attributed to occupational differences. Middle-class parents have been found to be more verbal with their children while lower-class parents rely on physical control to a greater extent.

From the literature it appears that middle-class parents are more accepting of their children than lower-class parents. Although an attitude of parental acceptance of children (referred to hereafter as parental acceptance) has been seen as an important aspect of child rearing, there have been few studies concerned with acceptance. Those studies that have researched parental acceptance seem to indicate that mothers are more acceptant than fathers and that various factors

such as education, length of marriage, and religiosity are related to parental acceptance. The little research which has been done on parental acceptance and the many contradictions within the existing studies indicate a need for further research in the area.

Samples consisting of parents and their natural children have been studied in terms of parental acceptance. In this study parental acceptance was researched as it was related to the parental acceptance of parents for their foster children. Foster parents are special parents. They are given the role of "partial parent" and must share responsibilities for foster children with social workers, natural parents, and the courts. Although foster care is theoretically temporary, many foster children remain in foster care through childhood and until they reach the age of maturity. The longer children remain in foster care the less likely they are to be returned to their natural homes or placed in an adoptive home. Thus, many child welfare professionals are concerned with successful placements (i.e., placements of short duration which end in a permanent home for the foster child). Many studies concerned with foster parents have focused upon predicting success in placement.

Various characteristics of foster parents have been associated with successful fostering. Acceptance of children's behaviors has been found to be associated with better ratings from social workers. In addition, experience with

children and social class background have been found to be predictive of successful fostering.

Until recently, foster parents have been cautioned by child welfare experts to withhold or submerge parental feelings for the foster child because of the temporary nature of foster care. Child welfare experts have realized the negative effects this may have on the foster parent as well as the foster child and have changed their attitudes about the parental feelings foster parents may have, and express, for their foster children. It has been found that an accepting parent does have a positive effect on the development of the child and that acceptance in a foster parent is constructive for the foster child.

Studies on the socioeconomic status of foster parents present contradictory results. Many studies have found that foster parents are usually in the lower middle class and working class. Little research has been done on the parental characteristics of foster parents that could affect foster children and their development.

In this study the relationship between the social class (and other characteristics of foster parents) and parental acceptance of foster children was studied.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of the study are as follows:

1. To compare parental acceptance of parents in different social classes.

2. To compare mothers' and fathers' parental acceptance of a foster child.

3. To study the relationships between parental characteristics and parental acceptance.

4. To determine which parental characteristics of foster parents explain most of the variance in parental acceptance.

Definitions of Terms

For clarification, terms that have specific meanings in this study are defined.

Social class refers to that ranking assigned to the father's occupation and education by Hollingshead (1957) in the Two Factor Index of Social Position.

Parental acceptance refers to the total score obtained by summing the scores on three sub-scales of the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale (PPAS). A higher score indicates a greater degree of acceptance of children.

Hypotheses

Based on a review of the literature the hypotheses of this study are as follows:

Hypothesis I. Middle-class parents will score higher on the PPAS than lower-class parents.

Hypothesis II. Foster mothers will score higher on the PPAS than foster fathers.

Hypothesis III. The longer a foster parent has been married, the higher his/her score on the PPAS.

Hypothesis IV. The more education a foster parent has, the higher his/her score on the PPAS.

Hypothesis V. A combination of the independent variables will account for a significant amount of the explained variance in foster parents' acceptance of foster children.

Limitations

The sample in this study consists of foster parents who were contacted by foster care agency personnel. This sample limits the interpretation of the data to the subjects of this study. Generalizations cannot be made to other populations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature reviewed for this study is divided into three sections: differences in child-rearing patterns and attitudes between social classes; parental acceptance and factors associated with parental acceptance; and characteristics of foster parents.

Social Class Differences in Child Rearing

Social class has been defined by Williams (1960) as referring to "an aggregate of individuals who occupy a broadly similar position in the scale of prestige" (p. 98). One is assigned a position in the prestige hierarchy through one's occupation, income, and/or education (Byrne, 1966). As Kohn (1969) stated, "most research on social class and family relationships in the United States . . . conceives of society as divided into four relatively discrete classes" (p. 11). These classes include a "lower" class, a "working" class, a "middle" class, and an "elite". The majority of the research on child rearing attitudes and patterns has been done with lower-class, working-class, and middle-class samples.

It has been shown that social class differentiates parents in terms of their characteristics and values which in

turn influence child-rearing attitudes and patterns. The literature suggests that the differences which exist between different social classes in child-rearing patterns are indicative of differences in living conditions (Walters & Sinnett, 1971). In 1946, Davis and Havighurst reported social class differences in child rearing. They found that middle-class parents were less nurturant and more controlling than lower-class parents. This finding was contradicted by Maccoby and Gibbs' (1954) finding that middle-class parents were warmer and allowed their children more freedom than lower-class parents. The conflicting findings of Davis and Havighurst (1946) and Maccoby and Gibbs (1954) led Bronfenbrenner to review the literature on child-rearing practices (Nye & Berardo, 1973).

Bronfenbrenner (1958) reviewed fifteen studies of child-rearing practices that were done between 1932 and 1957. The data accentuated several trends. First, until World War II working-class mothers were more permissive than middle-class mothers in patterns of infant care such as feeding, weaning, and toilet training. After World War II there was a reversal, with middle-class mothers being more permissive. Over the entire 25-year period all mothers tended to move toward more permissiveness. Brim (1959) found a similar pattern. Secondly, Bronfenbrenner found that the studies indicated that throughout the period reviewed the middle-class mother was more permissive toward the young child's needs and wishes. A third trend reported by Bronfenbrenner was that

> over the entire 25-year period studied, parent-child relationships in the middle class are consistently reported as more acceptant and equalitarian, while those in the working class are oriented toward maintaining order and obedience. (p. 425)

Generally, the working-class parent was found to be more rejecting and less warm than the middle-class parent. Further support for this position comes from McKinley's (1964) study in which lower-class fathers were viewed as being relatively more rejecting than middle-class or upper-class fathers. Bronfenbrenner's review indicated that the conflicting findings of Davis and Havighurst (1946) and Maccoby and Gibbs (1954) were due to changes in child-rearing practices over time. According to Bell and Hertz (1976) Bronfenbrenner's conclusions have not been challenged (p. 68).

In an observational study of maternal child-rearing practices, Brody (1968) found similar patterns of socioeconomic differences. Working-class mothers were more passive and less stimulating with their children than middle-class mothers. Using the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey, Mitchell (1971) found that the scores of middle-class parents indicated more favorable child-rearing attitudes in comparison with lower-class parents.

Bronfenbrenner (1958) noted that the trend of middle-class infant care patterns corresponded to the changes in practices recommended by experts (p. 424). White (1957) found that lower-class mothers relied upon their upbringing and inclinations while middle-class mothers more often mentioned experts as their sources of child-rearing ideas.

White concluded from this finding that lower-class mothers are less likely to change. Kohn (1959) suggested that middle-class parents are more influenced by sources of expert opinion because the middle-class pattern of life is more conducive to change.

Kohn (1959) reported that although both middle-class and working-class parents valued respect for the rights of others and happiness for their children, between classes the parents empahsized different attributes as being the most valued in their children. Middle-class parents tended to emphasize consideration and self-control, and working-class parents tended to emphasize obedience and neatness. From this study, Kohn concluded that self-direction was more likely to be emphasized by middle-class parents and compliance with parental authority was more likely to be emphasized by working-class parents. Middle-class parents placed major importance upon the child's acting on the basis of internal standards of conduct, working-class parents on the child's conformity to external roles (Kohn, 1963). Kohn and Schooler (1969) supported Kohn's (1959) findings of social class value differences. Kohn and Schooler (1969) report that ". . . the higher the men's social class, the more highly they value self-direction for their children; the lower their class, the more likely they value conformity" (p. 662). Studying parental values of black parents, Scanzoni (1971) reported similar results. He found that obedience was more important to the

lower-status black parents and autonomy was more important to the higher-status black parents. Gecas and Nye (1974) also give some support to Kohn's hypothesis on class differences in parent-child relationships. They found that middle-class parents were more verbal and were more likely to use reason with their children, while lower-class parents were more limited in their ranges of responses and were more physical.

Other researchers have reported that occupational experiences affect parental behavior and their expectations of children. The values that parents transmit to their children through the socialization process are those values which will lead to success in the child's future occupational life (Aberle & Kasper, 1952). Since parents tend to base the training of their children on the life they have experienced, they prepare their children for a similar position in society (Kohn, 1969). Lower-class parents work with physical objects under direct supervision--obedience is thus an important value. Middle-class occupations demand more independence--self-direction is therefore an important value to middle-class parents. Kohn (1963) suggested that education and income as well as occupation differences contribute to social class differences in parental values.

Pearlin (1971) found that differences in occupations accounted for a great deal of the difference between the middle-class and the working-class father's values. Pearlin

compared a sample of parents in Turin, Italy to Kohn's sample in Washington, D. C. He found that the relationship of social class to parental values was much the same in both countries.

> In Italy as in the United States, middle-class parents put greater emphasis on the child's self-direction and working-class parents on the child's conformity to external prescription. (p. 71)

Child-rearing attitudes and behaviors appear to differ between social classes, but for parents of different racial groups within the same class there seem to be no significant differences. Miller and Swanson (1958) found no significant differences between lower-class whites and blacks in various aspects of child rearing.

Parental Acceptance and Associated Variables

Parental acceptance has been discussed by various researchers as an important aspect of child rearing. Although Porter's Parental Acceptance Scale was used in this study, as well as his definition of parental acceptance, there are other overlapping definitions of parental acceptance.

When Porter (1954) began his research he found no adequate definition of parental acceptance. In the development of a parental acceptance scale he formulated a detailed definition of parental acceptance:

> Parental acceptance may be defined as feelings and behavior on the part of the parents which are characterized by unconditional love for the child, a recognition of the child as a person with feelings who has a right and a need to express those feelings, a value for the unique make-up of the child and a recognition of the child's need to differentiate and separate himself from his parents in order that he may become an autonomous individual. (p. 177)

Baldwin, Kalhorn, and Breese (1949) identified three dimensions of parent-child relationships. These dimensions were warmth, intellectual objectivity, and controls. These researchers approached acceptance as one aspect of warmth and defined acceptance as the degree to which the parent's emotional life includes or excludes the child (p. 6).

Sloman (1948) and von Mering (1955) found that parental acceptance influences children, giving them a position of importance in the home which encourages the development of a good self-concept. Hurlock (1964) stated that accepted children are friendly and emotionally stable; they accept responsibilities and can see themselves realistically (p. 661). Additional research indicates that parental empathy is important to the child's emotional and social development (Baumrind, 1969; Carkhuff, 1971; Stollack, 1973).

Various factors have been researched to determine their relationships with parental acceptance. Hawkes, Burchinal, Gardner, and Porter (1956) found, in a lower middle-class sample, that mothers scored significantly higher on the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale than did fathers. A higher score on this scale indicates a higher degree of acceptance. Hawkes et al. also found that for mothers length of marriage was significantly related to parental acceptance. "It is interesting to note that mothers who had been married 16 years or more were more accepting of children than were mothers who had been married less than 16 years" (p. 199).

Porter (1955) found that the educational level of the parent was significantly related to the degree of parental acceptance. Marital adjustment had a moderate positive relationship with parental acceptance in Porter's study.

Orthner (1969), using an adaptation of the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale, found that parental religiosity had a positive relationship with parental acceptance. Ross (1971), however, found no significant differences between slightly and devoutly religious mothers and their acceptance of children.

Burchinal (1958), using the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale with a sample of lower middle-class couples with a 5th grade child, found that mothers 35 years and older had significantly higher degrees of acceptance than fathers of the same age. Where the father was in a business or semi-professional occupation the mother was again found to be significantly more accepting.

Results from two other studies indicate that there is not a significant difference between mothers and fathers in parental acceptance. Platt, Jurgensen, and Chorost (1962) administered an adaptation of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument to parents of emotionally disturbed adolescents. They measured parental authoritarian control and parental warmth. No significant differences were found for the warmth score, which is comparable to acceptance, on the basis of sex. Becker, Peterson, Luria, Shoemaker, and Hellmer (1962)

interviewed parents of five-year-old children and identified five factors from their responses, including warmth versus hostility. Analysis indicated that mothers and fathers had similar attitudes and behaviors.

Characteristics of Foster Parents

"Foster care . . . is 24-hour care provided outside a parental home for children who enter the system through either the child welfare or the juvenile justice system" (Mott, 1975, p. 6). Over the past ten years 200,000 children a year have been placed in foster family homes (Kadushin, 1977). As of 1971 there were approximately 330,000 children in foster care in the United States (Mott, 1975). A majority of the children who are unable to live with their parents are cared for through foster family care (Geiser, 1973). Foster parents are responsible for the care of children who temporarily have been placed outside of their natural home due to a variety of factors including child abuse, family dissolution, and economic instability.

Foster parents have an ambiguous role. They are given the responsibility for the parenting of a child, but have traditionally been discouraged from becoming psychologically attached to the foster child (Goldstein, Freud, & Solnit, 1973) because of the transitional nature of foster care (Geiser, 1973). Most foster children have problems unique to their situation and they experience guilt, anger, and

hostility because of their separation from their parents. In addition to the lack of a clear definition of the foster parent role, foster parents are usually not trained for the experience of fostering a child (Sampson, 1976).

Foster parents traditionally have been from the lower middle, or lower class. Foster children are usually found in foster homes where the foster parents are of the skilled working class, the lower middle class, and sometimes the unskilled working class (deFries, Jenkins, & Williams, 1965; Mandell, 1973). Mandell (197) cites George in tracing the development of bias in foster care. Foster care began in England with upper-class women in charge of finding the foster homes. These women thought that it was necessary to command respect from the foster parents and therefore selected people of classes lower than their own. Parents on relief were unacceptable and middle-class foster parents were thought to be less accepting of close supervision than were people from the skilled working class (p. 43).

Fanshel (1966), Wolins (1963), Jaffee (1967), and Babcock (1965) have surveyed foster parents and found the majority of their samples were blue-collar workers. There have been studies which indicate that foster parents do not necessarily belong to one social class. Glassburg (1965) found that foster parents in the Philadelphia area were representative of the metropolitan area and concluded that foster parenthood was not restricted to those in the lower social

classes. Rowe's (1976) sample consisted largely of the professional as well as the skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar occupations, appearing to be unrepresentative of other foster parent samples. Peterson and Pierce (1974) found that foster parents tended to reflect the community in terms of class distribution.

Most studies dealing with the social class of foster parents have been concerned with the relationship between social class and success of placement. Success of placement is determined by the number of moves a foster child has to make, as well as the length of time a foster child remains in foster care. The fewer the number of moves, and the shorter the placement, the better the placement. As stated in a report by Paul Mott for the Subcommittee on Children and Youth (1975), "the longer a child stays in foster care, the less likely he or she is to return to the natural home and the lower the probabilities of adoption" (p. 11). It is therefore essential for the realization of the goals of foster care to ensure the child a quick return to his family or some other permanent situation. Contrary to the goal of foster care, the majority of foster children are likely to remain in foster care until they reach maturity (Wiltse & Gambrill, 1974). Many children not only remain in foster care for a long period, but also experience further disruptions in their lives because of the instability of their foster homes. Maas and Engler's (1969) results indicated

that children go through several placements, with one-fourth of the children they surveyed having had at least four placements. Eisenberg (1962) found that it was the foster children who were in care longer and who had a larger number of placements who were referred to child psychiatric services. Geiser (1973) reported that foster children who have had many placements become insecure, and experience difficulties in forming relationships with others (p. 89). Geiser (1973) also reported that the more moves foster children make the longer they remain in foster care. Such findings, and the importance of the area, have lead researchers to be concerned with the different variables that can be used as predictors of success in foster care. The research in this area, however, appears to be contradictory.

Parker (1966) found lower-class foster parents to be more successful than upper middle-class foster parents. Mandell (1973) cites Cautley's report which indicated that families with higher socioeconomic status were more successful. Fanshel (1970) found the better foster mother was rated as more understanding of the child's behavior and suggested that lower-class foster parents had child-rearing attitudes that might hinder effective fostering. Sampson (1976), on the other hand, reported that one agency which accepted low-income applicants has had promising results. Rowe (1976) hypothesized that a good foster parent was one who could accept and, therefore, tolerate the foster child's personality

and problem behavior (p. 507). He found that there was a trend, although not significant, for the higher socioeconomic and verbal IQ foster parents to show more acceptance. Rowe (1976) concluded from his study that parental attitudes, such as acceptance, were related to successful foster parenting, but that social class was not. Fanshel (1961b) also found parental attitudes to be predictive of success in fostering. Layman (1942) found that among the factors which seemed to contribute to increases in the IQ of foster children was a feeling of security and acceptance not met by the natural parents, but which the foster parents were capable of meeting. Two studies (Cautley & Aldridge, 1975; Fanshel, 1961b) indicated that the number of foster children, natural children and the foster parents' siblings were related to success in fostering.

From this review of the literature it can be concluded that social class does bear on parental attitudes and that parental acceptance of children may vary in relation to various parental characteristics. Although it has not been studied in this way, it appears that working-class foster parents may be less accepting of children than middle-class foster parents because of their greater emphasis on conformity to expectations. It has been shown that the attitudes and social class of foster parents may be related to success in foster care. The literature focusing on parental acceptance is sparse, as is the literature on parental attitudes that

foster parents may have toward foster children. It is the purpose of this study to expand upon the existing knowledge of parental acceptance and the factors that may be related to this aspect of child-rearing attitudes, as well as to discuss foster parent characteristics that relate to parental acceptance of foster children.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

Selection of Subjects

Subjects were foster parents in the Western Welfare Region of Pennsylvania who were involved in a larger study, the Foster Parent Training Project (FPTP). The project was funded in part by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Welfare and directed by Louise Guerney, Ph.D., whose staff worked through the Center for Human Services Development at the Pennsylvania State University. The author was employed as project coordinator in 1975. The subjects included those participating in a parenting skills course and those matched to them who did not participate in the parenting training. Those in the training course had either volunteered or were recruited by foster care agency personnel. Each subject received a packet of questionnaires including the Family Information Questionnaire (FIQ) and the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale (PPAS). Those subjects who returned completed questionnaires were included in the current study. The subjects included in this study were compared to a larger sample of foster parents in the Western Welfare Region of Pennsylvania and were found to be comparable (Guerney, 1976).

Instruments Used

Two instruments were used to obtain the data for this study--the Family Information Questionnaire (FIQ) and the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale (PPAS). The FIQ was developed for a larger study and consisted of open-ended and closed-ended questions on personal background and family information (see Appendix A). The following information was among that obtained for the respondents and their spouses: (a) number of years married, (b) sex, (c) religion, (d) race, (e) education, (f) occupation, (i) birth order, (j) number of children including natural and adopted, (k) years of fostering, (l) total number of children fostered.

The PPAS (Porter, 1952) consists of four subscales of ten multiple choice items each (see Appendix B). For this study the "unconditional love" subscale was not used because it did not seem pertinent to parental acceptance of foster children. Each of the subscales used was felt to be pertinent to foster parental acceptance and included (a) recognition of the child's need for autonomy, (b) recognition of the child's need for self-expression, and (c) recognition of the unique make-up of each child. The items in each subscale are repeated--once asking how the parent feels in the described situation and again asking what the parent does in the situation. Each item has five choices, of which the parent was asked to pick one. The items are arbitrarily weighted from one to five with the higher score indicating a greater degree of acceptance.

Scores on the original scale could range from 40 to 200. In this study, because of the adaptation made, scores could range from 30 to 150. Porter (1955) reported a reliability coefficient of .766 which was increased to .865 using the Spearman Brown formula. Validity was inferred from the rankings of expert judges and the conceptual framework upon which the items were based.

Collection of Data

The FIQ and PPAS were handed out to foster parents attending the first session of a training course and were also sent to matched foster parents not attending the course. The instruments were included with other scales and a cover letter explaining the research of a larger research project (see Appendix C). These were contained in an addressed envelope so that the respondents could return the packet directly to the researchers rather than to the group leader, often a foster care caseworker. The respondents were requested to complete the forms independently of their spouses. An informal check for collusion was made as the completed forms were returned. The cover letter included a request for the completed forms within two weeks. If the forms were not returned within the specified time the respondent was sent a letter from the FPTP reiterating the importance of his/her participation. If the respondent did not respond to the letter, a telephone call was made to him/her by a

project staff member. Forms that were returned but were incomplete were not included in this study.

Analysis of Data

Information from the instruments was coded onto an IBM computerized answer sheet. The answer sheet was checked after which the information was transferred to coding sheets. The coding was checked twice. The data were analyzed with correlational, analysis of variance, and stepwise multiple regression procedures using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975). The .05 level of significance was employed throughout this study.

Dummy variables were created for sex, religion, race, social class, occupation, and education for the stepwise multiple regression analysis. Social class was computed using Hollingshead's Two Factor Index of Social Position score (1957). The subject's occupation and education were classified according to Hollingshead (1957). The occupation score was weighted by seven and education by four and the two scores were combined to produce a social class score. The range of social position scores possible was 11 - 77. Hollingshead (1957) has broken the range of scores into five social classes as follows:

Social Class	Range of Computed Scores
I	11 - 14
II	15 - 27
III	28 - 43
IV	44 - 60
V	61 - 77 (p. 10)

Analyses of variance were performed to test differences in parental acceptance between groups. Stepwise multiple regression was used to determine which characteristics contributed the most to the explained variance of parental acceptance. Correlations were computed to examine the relationships among the variables.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Description of the Sample

The sample consisted of 79 foster parents in the Western Welfare Region of Pennsylvania who were involved in a larger study, the Foster Parent Training Project. Demographic information for the subjects are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

The mean age of the sample was 40.6 and 98.7% of the sample was white. The majority of the subjects were Protestant, were at least high school graduates, and were skilled or semi-skilled workers. Eighty-six percent of the sample was classified as belonging to social class IV or V. The mean length of time married was 16.6 years and the mean number of own children was 2.4. These foster parents had been fostering for a mean of 4.8 years and had fostered a mean total of 4.7 children. The mean score on the Porter Parental Acceptance Scale was 110.56.

Differences in Acceptance

To test the hypotheses of social class, sex, length of marriage and education differences in acceptance, one-way analyses of variance were performed on the data. Analysis of variance was used to determine if subsamples within the sample for this study differed with respect to parental acceptance.

Table 1

Characteristics of the Sample

Variable	Frequency	%
Religion		
Protestant	64	81.0
Catholic	12	15.2
Jewish	0	0
Other	3	3.8
Race		
White	78	98.7
Black	1	1.3
Social Class[a]		
I	2	2.5
II	5	6.3
III	4	5.1
IV	50	63.3
V	18	22.8
Education[a]		
Graduate Training (1)	5	6.3
College Graduate (2)	9	11.4
Partial College (3)	8	10.1
High School Graduate (4)	35	44.3
Partial High School (5)	13	16.5
Junior High School (6)	7	8.9
Less than 7 years (7)	2	2.5
Occupation[a]		
Major professionals	3	3.8
Lesser professionals	5	6.3
Minor professionals	2	2.5
Clerical and sales workers	5	6.3
Skilled manual employees	11	13.9
Semi-skilled employees	49	62.0
Unskilled employees	4	5.2
Birth Order		
First born	18	22.8
Second born	18	22.8
Third born	11	13.9
Fourth born	9	11.4
Fifth born	4	5.1
Sixth born	7	8.9
Seventh born or higher	12	15.2
Sex		
Male	28	35.4
Female	51	64.6

Note. N = 79

[a]Based on Hollingshead (1957)

Table 2

Additional Characteristics of the Sample

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	40.59	11.44
Years married	16.66	10.65
Total number of children	2.40	1.64
Years of fostering	4.80	5.43
Total number of foster children	4.68	4.35
Total Porter Score	110.56	12.52

Note. N = 79

Social class. The first hypothesis was tested by a one-way analysis of variance on all social classes.

H_1 Middle-class parents will score higher on the PPAS than lower-class parents.

Subjects in the middle class did score higher on the PPAS, indicating greater acceptance, than did the lower-class subjects, but this difference was not large enough to be significant. The group means were as follows: social class V, 108.9; social class II, 109.6; social class IV, 110.4; social class III, 115.0; and social class I, 120.5. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. The F ratio was .576 which failed to be significant at the .05 level, thereby indicating that social class does not differentiate foster parents on their PPAS score.

Sex. The second hypothesis was tested by a one-way analysis of variance on foster fathers and foster mothers.

H_2 Foster mothers will score higher on the PPAS than foster fathers.

The mean PPAS score was 111.73 for foster mothers and 108.42 for foster fathers. This difference was not significant at the $p < .05$ level with an F ratio of 1.258.

Length of marriage. The third hypothesis was tested with a one-way analysis of variance of parents married 16 years or longer and parents married less than 16 years.

H_3 The longer a foster parent has been married the higher his/her score on the PPAS.

The mean PPAS score for parents married less than 16 years was 111.45 and for parents married at least 16 years, 109.64. The difference was not significant at the $p < .05$ level with an F ratio of .409.

Education. The fourth hypothesis was tested with a one-way analysis of variance of the seven educational groups.

H_4 The more education a foster parent has, the higher his/her score on the PPAS.

Generally, the more education a foster parent had, the higher his/her score on the PPAS, but with an F ratio of .965 the hypothesis was not supported at the .05 level of significance. The group means were as follows: education 6, 105.3; education 7, 107.0; education 4, 109.1; education 5, 110.8; education 2, 111.0; education 3, 116.9; education 1, 118.20.

The analyses of variance which were performed revealed no significant differences in parental acceptance, as measured by the PPAS, for foster parents of different social classes, sex, length of marriage, or educational level. The trends, however, were in the direction hypothesized except for the length of marriage.

The Prediction of Acceptance

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to predict parental acceptance based upon the following independent variables: age, years of fostering, sex, social class, race, birth order, religion, and total number of foster children. Dummy variables were used for social class, race, and

religion. Stepwise multiple regression was performed to determine how the independent variables contributed to the explanation of the variance in parental acceptance.

The hypothesis tested by the stepwise multiple regression was:

H_5 A combination of the independent variables will account for a significant amount of explained variance in foster parents' acceptance of children.

The amount of variance in acceptance that was explained by seven of the independent variables was significant at the $p < .05$ level. The variables were not pre-ordered. The summary table for those variables that were significantly entered into the regression equation is presented in Table 3. These variables were all significant at the .05 level. The variables Catholic, social class II, years married, black, social class IV, age, and Protestant were entered into the regression equation, but were not significant at the $p < .05$ level. Jewish and white were not entered into the equation due to insufficient *F* values.

Years of fostering was entered in the first step with an *F* ratio of 4.89. This variable explained 6% of the variance in parental acceptance and was entered with a negative coefficient, indicating that the more years a subject had been fostering the lower his/her acceptance score. Total number of children was the second variable entered and explained an additional 2.8% of the variance in parental

Table 3

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis of Parental Acceptance

Variables	Multiple R	R^2	Simple R	R^2 Change
Years of fostering	.244	.059	-.244	.059
Total number of own children	.296	.087	.122	.028
Social class III	.325	.106	.083	.018
Total number of foster children	.352	.124	-.052	.019
Birth order	.376	.141	.116	.017
Social class I	.401	.161	.129	.019
Sex	.426	.182	.127	.021

R = .426 R^2 = .182 DF - 7, 71 F = 2.249* R^2 Adjusted = .101

Note. N = 79

* $p < .05$

acceptance with an F ratio of 3.64. Social class III, entered as the third variable, was significant with an F ratio of 2.95. This explained 1.8% of the total variance in parental acceptance. The fourth variable entered was the total number of foster children, significant with an F ratio of 2.62. An additional 1.9% of the total variance was explained by total number of foster children. Birth order of the foster parent was entered as the fifth variable. This variable was significant with an F ratio of 2.40 and explained an additional 1.7% of the variance in parental acceptance. The sixth variable that was significantly entered was social class I. With an F ratio of 2.29 this was significant and explained an additional 1.9% of the variance in parental acceptance. The final variable that was significantly entered was sex. With an F ratio of 2.25 this was significant and explained 2.1% of the variance in parental acceptance. These seven variables significantly explained 18% of the variance in parental acceptance. The stepwise multiple regression analysis of parental acceptance on the independent variables is presented in Table 4.

In order to determine the relative importance of the components of social class, occupation and education, in the explanation of the variance in parental acceptance, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was repeated using occupation and education as dummy variables instead of social class. Seventeen independent variables were significantly

Table 4

Stepwise Multiple Regression for Parental Acceptance

Step 1 Variable entered: Years of fostering

Standard error = 12.216		Sum of	Mean	
Analysis of variance	DF	Squares	Square	F
Regression	1	729.352	729.352	4.888*
		11490.142	149.223	

Step 1 Summary	B	Beta	F to remove
Variables in equation:			
Years of fostering	-.562	-.244	4.888*
(Constant)	113.255		

Step 2 Variable entered: Total children

Standard error = 12.223		Sum of	Mean	
Analysis of variance	DF	Squares	Square	F
Regression	2	1068.237	534.118	3.640*
Residual	76	11151.257	146.727	

Step 2 Summary	B	Beta	F to remove
Variables in equation:			
Years of fostering	-.629	-.273	6.034*
Total children	1.290	.169	2.310
(Constant)	110.450		

Step 3 Variable entered: Social class III

Standard error = 12.071		Sum of	Mean	
Analysis of variance	DF	Squares	Square	F
Regression	3	1290.975	430.325	2.953*
Residual	75	10928.519	145.714	

Step 3 Summary	B	Beta	F to remove
Variables in equation:			
Years of fostering	-.690	-.300	7.053*
Total children	1.314	.172	2.407
Social class III	7.803	.138	1.529
(Constant)	110.295		

Step 4 Variable entered: Total foster children

Standard error = 12.026		Sum of	Mean	
Analysis of variance	DF	Squares	Square	F
Regression	4	1516.591	379.148	2.621*
Residual		10902.903	144.634	

Step 4 Summary	B	Beta	F to remove
Variables in equation:			
Years of fostering	-.942	-.409	8.242*
Total children	1.260	.165	2.224
Social class III	8.953	.158	1.985
Total foster children	.500	.174	1.560
(Constant)	109.231		

Step 5 Variable entered: Birth order

Standard error = 11.989		Sum of	Mean	
Analysis of variance	DF	Squares	Square	F
Regression	5	1726.995	345.399	2.403*
Residual	73	10492.499	143.733	

Step 5 Summary	B	Beta	F to remove
Variables in equation:			
Years of fostering	-.979	-.426	8.890*
Total children	1.250	.164	2.201
Social class III	8.433	.149	1.764
Total foster children	.568	.198	1.985
Birth order	.779	.133	1.464
(Constant)	106.495		

Step 6 Variable entered: Social class I

Standard error = 11.935		Sum of	Mean	
Analysis of variance	DF	Squares	Square	F
Regression	6	1962.233	327.039	2.296*
Residual	72	10257.261	142.462	

Step 6 Summary	B	Beta	F to remove
Variables in equation:			
Years of fostering	0.976	-.424	8.901*
Total children	1.197	.157	2.032
Social class III	8.648	.152	1.870
Total foster children	.537	.187	1.785
Birth order	.858	.147	1.775
Social class I	11.098	.140	1.651
(Constant)	106.188		

Step 7 Variable entered: Sex

Standard error = 11.869		Sum of	Mean	
Analysis of variance	DF	Squares	Square	F
Regression	7	2218.023	316.86	2.249*
Residual	71	10001.471	140.866	

Step 7 Summary	B	Beta	F to remove
Variables in equation:			
Years of fostering	-.954	-.414	8.579
Total children	.997	.130	1.381
Social class III	9.274	.163	2.163
Total foster children	.451	.157	1.238
Birth order	.841	.144	1.728
Social class I	14.055	.178	2.514
Sex	3.999	.154	1.816
(Constant)	100.341		

Note. N = 79

* $p < .05$

entered into the regression equation and explained 33% of the variability in acceptance with a standard error of 11.56. This was significant at the .05 level. The summary table for this analysis is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Parental Acceptance with Occupation and Education Variables

Variables	Multiple R	R^2	Simple R	R^2 Change
Years of fostering	.244	.060	-.244	.060
Occupation 5	.327	.107	-.174	.047
Education 3	.378	.143	.171	.036
Occupation 3	.419	.175	.089	.032
Protestant	.452	.204	.092	.029
Birth order	.472	.223	.115	.018
Education 1	.502	.252	.160	.029
Total children	.521	.271	.122	.019
Total foster children	.536	.287	-.052	.016
Education 4	.545	.297	-.106	.010
Education 6	.550	.303	-.132	.005
Age	.554	.307	-.084	.004
Occupation 1	.556	.309	.119	.002
Black	.558	.311	.095	.002
Education 5	.561	.315	.008	.004
Education 2	.576	.332	.013	.017
Occupation 2	.578	.333	-.062	.001

R = .578 R^2 = .333 DF = 17, 61 F = 1.791* R^2 Adjusted = .147

Note. N = 79

* $p < .05$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The data from this study indicated that various demographic variables did not significantly differentiate the subjects in terms of their parental acceptance of foster children. There was a trend for higher socioeconomic status subjects and higher educational status subjects to score higher on the PPAS. The differences between groups, tested by one-way analyses of variance, were not significant at the .05 level, although the trends in the data were in accord with the literature. In past studies middle-class parents were found to be more accepting of their children than lower-class parents (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Kohn, 1959, 1963, 1969; Pearlin, 1971). Porter (1954) found differences by education in parental acceptance.

The homogeneity of this sample could have contributed to these nonsignificant findings. The majority of the sample was classified as belonging to social class IV or V and having a partial or complete high school education with little variance. Even with a more diversified sample, however, the social class and education differences might not appear. Foster parents are in the unique situation of caring for someone's child with little idea of the length of time the child will stay with them. It is possible that foster parents,

in general, are more accepting of children than are parents who do not care for foster children--foster care may attract a person who is more accepting of children, regardless of social class or education.

Babcock (1965b) noted that the foster parents in her sample saw parenthood as the basis of their marriages. Caring for children was viewed as a life goal and a life task (Babcock, 1965a). Many foster parents are motivated by this parental orientation to care for foster children (Fanshel, 1961a) and this parental orientation could contribute to the lack of significant differences between groups of foster parents in their acceptance of foster children.

Parental acceptance scores also did not differ significantly by sex of the foster parent. This finding is consistent with the findings of Becker et al. (1962) and Platt et al. (1962). It appears from these data that mothers and fathers are similar in their parental acceptance of foster children.

Foster parents married less than 16 years tended to score higher on the PPAS than those married 16 years or longer. This was contrary to Burchinal's (1958) finding. In this study, years married was significantly correlated with years of fostering ($r = .57$: $p < .01$). Those foster parents married longer had been foster parents longer and had entered foster care at a time when foster care experts were wary of and discouraged close relationships between foster parents and

foster child. Thus, those parents married longer were more likely to have been discouraged by child welfare experts in their feelings and behavior indicative of acceptance toward their foster children.

The stepwise multiple regression analysis explained a small, although significant, amount of the variance in parental acceptance of foster children with seven independent variables. Two social class categories, I and III, were significantly entered indicating a relatively small influence on parental acceptance of foster children. This finding suggested that foster parents of the upper class and middle class were more accepting of foster children than were foster parents of the lower class. This finding was consistent with the literature on social class differences in child-rearing patterns and attitudes (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Kohn, 1959, 1963, 1969; Pearlin, 1971). A second stepwise multiple regression was performed using occupation and education dummy variables instead of social class dummy variables. This analysis increased the prediction capability almost twofold. Apparently, the influence of the components of social class was greater when they were viewed as discrete categories.

The majority of the variance in parental acceptance was explained by four variables which were indicative of familiarity with child care. Years of fostering, total number of own children, total number of foster children, and birth

order explained 11.3% of the variance in parental acceptance. Years of fostering had an inverse relationship with parental acceptance and was entered into the regression equation with a negative coefficient. Thus, the longer the fostering experience the less the amount of parental acceptance of foster children. As Geiser (1973) has noted, child welfare experts have changed from viewing the foster parent-child relationship as a professional relationship (and discouraging strong personal ties) to viewing it as a personal relationship. The foster parents in this sample could have entered foster care at a time when emotional attachments between the foster parents and the foster child were discouraged because of the supposed negative effects it would have on all involved in the relationship at the termination of the placement. Experts in the child welfare field have realized the importance of a stable and emotionally warm relationship for the healthy development of the foster child and are gradually changing their attitudes toward the personal relationship of a foster parent and his/her foster child.

Other than the variable "years of fostering", a greater amount of experience with children indicated a greater amount of parental acceptance for foster children. Having children of their own, caring for foster children, and coming from a family with several older siblings apparently enabled a foster parent to be more accepting of foster children. Not only are these variables associated with acceptance, they

have also been found to be associated with success in fostering. Cautley and Aldridge (1975), Babcock (1965b), and Fanshel (1961a) have all found that these variables are indicative of successful fostering. Further, successful fostering has been found to be associated with child-rearing attitudes including acceptance of foster children. Rowe (1976) found acceptance of the foster child to be related to successful fostering. Fanshel (1961c) found parental attitudes, as measured by the Parent Attitude Research Instrument, to be predictive of the quality of fostering. Thus, it appears that experience with child care is somewhat predictive of acceptance of foster children and that acceptance of foster children is indicative of successful fostering.

The final variable entered into the regression equation was sex of the foster parent. This variable, used as a dummy variable, was entered into the regression equation such that a female subject received a higher acceptance score than a male subject. This finding supports Hawkes et al. (1956) in the contention that women are more acceptant of children than are men.

Babcock (1965b) has noted that her sample, consisting of foster parent for infants, tended to view their marital relationship as based on the ability to be parents. These foster parents had a history of caring for children and saw child-care as a life-task. Foster care was used by these foster parents as a way to extend their child-caring years.

The present study indicated that familiarity with child care is an important variable to consider in the explanation of the variance of parental acceptance of foster children.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Previous studies examining child-rearing patterns and attitudes indicated significant differences on the basis of various parental characteristics. Social class differences in child rearing have been noted by various researchers. Middle-class parents have been found to be more accepting of their children than lower-class parents. Parental acceptance has been researched and found to be related to several parental characteristics, such as educational level and length of marriage. In addition, characteristics of foster parents have been examined to determine their relationships with success of fostering, and acceptance of foster children has been found to be predictive of successful fostering. This study had as its purpose the investigation of the relationships of social class and other parental characteristics of foster parents to parental acceptance of foster children.

The sample for this study consisted of 79 foster parents. The subjects completed questionnaires from which demographic data (FIQ) and a parental acceptance score (PPAS) were obtained. Correlational, analysis of variance, and stepwise multiple regression statistical procedures were performed on the data.

The results indicated that social class, education, length of marriage and sex of foster parents did not significantly differentiate the subjects' acceptance of foster children. Generally, however, the subjects were somewhat more accepting if they were of higher social class, higher educational level or had been married less than 16 years. In addition, foster mothers were more acceptant of foster children than foster fathers, although all these differences were not significant.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis indicated that social class was significantly predictive of parental acceptance in conjunction with variables which indicated familiarity with child care, but social class did not contribute extensively to the explanation of the variance in parental acceptance of foster children. Consistent with previous findings, the upper-class and middle-class foster parents were more accepting of their foster children. The data also indicated that the longer a foster parent had been fostering the lower his/her acceptance score and that women were more accepting of foster children than men.

A second stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the influence of the components of social class, education and occupation, in the explanation of the variance in parental acceptance. These two variables entered into the regression equation with various demographic variables and explained almost twice as much of the variance

in parental acceptance as the previously mentioned regression analysis.

Summary of the Hypotheses and Findings

A brief summary of the hypotheses, and of the results of the data analyses, follows.

Hypothesis I. Middle-class parents will score higher on the PPAS than lower-class parents.

Finding. This hypothesis was not confirmed by the data. Although the trend was in the direction predicted, the variability within groups was too great to show significant differences between groups.

Hypothesis II. Foster mothers will score higher on the PPAS than foster fathers.

Finding. The data indicated that foster mothers did score higher on the PPAS than foster fathers, but there was not a significant difference. This hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis III. The longer a foster parent has been married, the higher his/her score on the PPAS.

Finding. No significant differences were found between foster parents who had been married less than 16 years and those foster parents married 16 years or longer. The data revealed a trend for foster parents who had been married less than 16 years to have higher scores on the PPAS, indicating a higher degree of acceptance, than foster parents married longer than 16 years. Hypothesis III was therefore rejected.

Hypothesis IV. The more education a foster parent has, the higher his/her score on the PPAS.

Finding. This hypothesis was not confirmed by the data. The data did indicate that the higher the educational level, the more acceptant foster parents were of foster children. The differences were not statistically significant, however, and this hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis V. A combination of the independent variables will account for a significant amount of the explained variance in foster parents' acceptance of foster children.

Finding. Seven independent variables significantly accounted for 18% of the variability in parental acceptance. Social class variables entered into the regression equation indicated that upper-class foster parents and middle-class foster parents were more accepting of foster children than lower-class foster parents. Most of the explained variance in parental acceptance was accounted for by four variables indicative of familiarity with child care. Sex of the foster parents was also entered into the regression equation, indicating higher acceptance scores for foster mothers. This hypothesis was therefore accepted.

Conclusions

It is concluded from this study that social class does not significantly differentiate foster parents in terms of their parental acceptance of foster children. Social class was found, however, to contribute toward the explanation of

the variance in parental acceptance. A trend for middle-class and upper-class foster parents to score higher on parental acceptance than lower-class foster parents was observed in these data. It appears, though, that the components of social class, education and occupation, are more useful predictors of parental acceptance than social class.

In addition, no significant differences in parental acceptance were found on the basis of a subject's sex, educational level, or length of marriage, although trends are reported for female and highly educated subjects to score higher on parental acceptance, as well as subjects married less than 16 years.

It has been noted in the literature that foster parents are many times motivated to care for foster children because of a parental orientation. This orientation could contribute to a lack of differences by social class, education and sex as it may indicate that foster parents are more accepting of children than are those parents who do not foster children.

As reported in the literature, the data in this study indicated that there were trends for middle-class foster parents to be more acceptant than lower-class foster parents, for women to be more acceptant than men, and for educational level to be positively related to parental acceptance. Also consistent with previous research, this study indicated that familiarity with child care was an important characteristic in accounting for parental acceptance. Cautley and

Aldridge (1975), Babcock (1965b), and Fanshel (1961a) have noted that familiarity with child care was indicative of successful fostering. Acceptance has also been found to be indicative of success in fostering (Rowe, 1976), and therefore it could be said that familiarity with child care was found to be predictive of parental acceptance, which in other studies has been found to be predictive of successful fostering. From this study, it can be seen that familiarity with child care is an influential characteristic of the acceptance of foster children, although there is still much variability of parental acceptance that must be explained.

Implications for Future Research

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, implications for further research in this area are suggested.

1. Similar research should be conducted using a sample of foster parents and a sample of parents not involved in foster care to determine if foster parents are more accepting of children than non-foster parents.

2. Research should be conducted to determine the effects that child welfare experts' attitudes about foster care have on foster parents' attitudes toward their foster children.

3. Motivations of foster parents should be researched further in an attempt to obtain a better explanation of parental acceptance of foster children.

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APPENDIX A

FAMILY INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Form T

FOSTER PARENT TRAINING PROGRAM

FAMILY INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Date:_____ Agency Name:_____

Husband's Name:_____Age:_____

Wife's Name:_____Age:_____

Address:_____

City:_____County_____Zipcode_____

Telephone:_____ Caseworker's Name:_____

Have you had any kind of parenting training in the last five years?_____If yes, what kind?_____

_____

Have you read any "parenting skills" books in the last five years?_____If yes, what?_____

_____

Who is taking this foster parent training course? (Check one)

Wife only_____

Husband only_____

Both_____

****

Note: Your name will not be released or associated with these answers

****

I. Family Background

1. Number of years married_____

2. Religion: Husband_____

Wife_____

3. How frequently do you attend the church of your choice? (Check one space in each column)

	Husband	Wife	Children
a. Once a week	_____	____	_____
b. Once every two (2) weeks	_____	____	_____
c. Once a month	_____	____	_____
d. Few times a year	_____	____	_____
e. Not at all	_____	____	_____

4. Please indicate the appropriate group for you. (Check one space in each column).

	Husband	Wife
a. Indian	_____	____
b. Spanish-American	_____	____
c. Black	_____	____
d. White	_____	____
e. Other; please indicate	_____	____

5. Education (Check one space in each column)

	Husband	Wife
a. Postgraduate degree	_____	_____
b. College graduate	_____	_____
c. Some college	_____	_____
d. High school graduate	_____	_____
e. Some high school	_____	_____
f. Completed 7th grade but less than 9th	_____	_____
g. Completed less than 7th grade	_____	_____

6. Occupation

   a. Of husband_____

   b. Of wife_____

7. Approximate yearly income of family (Check one)

   a. Under 3500_____

   b. 3500 to 5000_____

   c. 5001 to 7000_____

   d. 7001 to 9000_____

   e. 9001 to 12,000_____

   f. 12,001 to 15,000_____

   g. More than 15,000_____

8. Positions of birth of husband and wife in their own families (Check one in each column).

	Husband	Wife
a. First born	_____	_____
b. Second born	_____	_____
c. Third born	_____	_____
d. Other (specify)	_____	_____

II. Information About Family

1. Type of neighborhood you live in Check one)

   Farm area_____

   Small town (1,000 or less)_____

   Large town (1,000 to 15,000)_____

   Small City (15,000 to 50,000)_____

   Large city (50,000 and above)_____

2. Type of housing (Check one)

   Single dwelling_____

   Apartment_____

   Other (please specify)_____

3. Is your home considered to be..... (Check one)

   Regular foster home_____

   Foster family group home_____

   Shelter or emergency home_____

   Pre-adoption home_____

   Other; please indicate_____

4. How many children of your own (natural or/and adopted) do you have?

   a. Boys_____ Ages_____

   b. Girls_____ Ages_____

   c. Number of boys still living at home_____

   d. Number of girls still living at home_____

5. How many foster children do you have presently living at your home?

   a. Foster boys_____

   b. Foster girls_____

6. What are the <u>ages</u> of your foster children? What are their <u>races</u>? What are their <u>religions</u>? And how long has each been living with you (months, years)?

	Age	Race	Religion	Length of time with you
Boys:	___	_____	_____	_____
	___	_____	_____	_____
	___	_____	_____	_____
	___	_____	_____	_____
	___	_____	_____	_____

	Age	Race	Religion	Length of time with you
Girls:	____	_____	_____	_____
	____	_____	_____	_____
	____	_____	_____	_____
	____	_____	_____	_____
	_____	_____	_____	_____

7. Altogether, how many years have you been foster parents?_____

8. Altogether, how many foster children have you had live with you (i.e., past and present)?_____

9. Which of these age ranges have you most enjoyed fostering? (indicate one only)

   a. Under two years old_____

   b. Pre-school over two years old_____

   c. Ages 6 to 12_____

   d. Teenagers_____

10. Please indicate which of the following types of children have been placed in your home: (Check any which apply)

    a. Mentally retarded_____

    b. Physically handicapped_____

    c. Delinquent_____

    d. Emotionally disturbed_____

    e. Abused_____

    f. No experience with these types of children_____

11. How rewarding have you found the experience of being a foster parent? (Check one)

    a. Generally, very rewarding_____

    b. Generally, moderately rewarding_____

    c. Generally, seldom rewarding_____

    d. Generally, not rewarding at all_____

III. Information About Relationship With Social Service Agency.

1. In the last year, how many different foster home case workers have been assigned to your home?

   Indicate Number_____

2. During the average month, about how many contacts do you have with the foster home case worker assigned to your home?

   (Indicate number of each type.)

   a. By phone_____

   b. By visit in your home_____

   c. By visit to the agency's offices_____

   d. Other_____

4. Please indicate your overall satisfaction with the service you have been receiving from your agency. (Check one)

   a. Generally, very satisfied_____

   b. Usually satisfied_____

   c. Usually dissatisfied_____

   d. Generally, very dissatisfied_____

IV. Personal Opinion Information

1. How did you originally find out about foster parents and foster children? That is, what was your first source of information? (1 or 2 sentences)

2. How did you originally become involved as foster parents? That is, how did you get into it? (1 or 2 sentences)

3. How did you first find out about this particular program? (1 or 2 sentences)

4. When your social worker told you about this particular program, do you think that he/she felt..... (Check one)

   a. Definitely, you must participate_____

   b. Probably, you should participate_____

   c. It was optional for you_____

   d. It was not important for you to participate_____

   e. Your social worker did not tell you about the program_____

5. What are you hoping to get out of this program? (1 or 2 sentences)

THIS PAGE WAS NOT INCLUDED FOR SUBJECTS IN THE CONTROL GROUPS.

APPENDIX B

PORTER PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE SCALE

PORTER PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE SCALE

Your name_____County_____

We are trying to learn more about parent-child relationships. To do this we need the cooperation and assistance of many parents. You can help us a great deal by filling out the attached questionnaire as frankly and as carefully as possible. Sincere and frank answers are requested so that valid data can be secured.

ALL OF THE RESPONSES WILL BE TREATED CONFIDENTIALLY AND WILL BE USED ONLY FOR PURPOSES OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

Please answer all questions. If you cannot give the exact answer to a question, answer the best you can.

While responding to the following questions please think of only one child. If you have a foster child in the age range of six to twelve years, choose that one. If you have more than one foster child in that age, choose the one nearest to ten years. If your foster children are younger or older than 6-12 years, choose the one closest in age to that range.

Age of child you are thinking of: _____ years.

BE SURE AND REFER ONLY TO THIS CHILD WHILE ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS.

PORTER PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE SCALE

Listed below are several statements describing things which children do and say. Following each statement are five responses which suggest ways of feeling or courses of action.

Read each statement carefully and then place a circle around the letter in front of the one response which most nearly describes the feeling you usually have or the course of action you most generally take when your child says or does these things.

It is possible that you may find a few statements which describe a type of behavior which you have not yet experienced with your child. In such cases, mark the response which most nearly describes how you think you would feel or what you think you would do.

Be sure that you answer every statement and mark only one response for each statement.

1. When my child is shouting and dancing with excitement at a time when I want peace and quiet, it:

   a. Makes me feel annoyed
   b. Makes me want to know more about what excites him
   c. Makes me feel like punishing him
   d. Makes me feel that I will be glad when he is past this stage
   e. Makes me feel like telling him to stop

2. When my child misbehaves while others in the group he is with are behaving well, I:

   a. See to it that he behaves as the others
   b. Tell him it is important to behave well when he is in a group
   c. Let him alone if he isn't disturbing the others too much
   d. Ask him to tell me what he would like to do
   e. Help him find some activity that he can enjoy and at the same time not disturb the group

3. When my child is unable to do something which I think is important for him, it:

   a. Makes me want to help him find success in the things he can do
   b. Makes me feel disappointed in him
   c. Makes me wish he could do it
   d. Makes me realize that he can't do everything
   e. Makes me want to know more about the things he can do

9. When my child acts silly and giggly, I:

   a. Tell him I know how he feels
   b. Pay no attention to him
   c. Tell him he shouldn't act that way
   d. Make him quit
   e. Tell him it is alright to feel that way, but help him find other ways of expressing himself

10. When my child prefers to do things with his friends rather than with his family, I:

   a. Encourage him to do things with his friends
   b. Accept this as part of growing up
   c. Plan special activities so that he will want to be with his family
   d. Try to minimize his association with his friends
   e. Make him stay with his family

11. When my child disagrees with me about something which I think is important, it:

   a. Makes me feel like punishing him
   b. Pleases me that he feels free to express himself
   c. Makes me feel like persuading him that I am right
   d. Makes me realize he has ideas of his own
   e. Makes me feel annoyed

12. When my child misbehaves while others in the group he is with are behaving well, it:

   a. Makes me realize that he does not always behave as others in his group
   b. Makes me feel embarrassed
   c. Makes me want to help him find the best ways to express his feelings
   d. Makes me wish he would behave like the others
   e. Makes me want to know more about his feelings

13. When my child is shouting and dancing with excitement at a time when I want peace and quiet, I:

   a. Give him something quiet to do
   b. Tell him that I wish he would stop
   c. Make him be quiet
   d. Let him tell me about what excites him
   e. Send him somewhere else

14. When my child seems to be more fond of someone else (teacher, friend, relative) than me, I:

    a. Try to minimize his association with that person
    b. Let him have such associations when I think he is ready for them
    c. Do some special things for him to remind him of how nice I am
    d. Point out the weaknesses and faults of that other person
    e. Encourage him to create and maintain such associations

15. When my child says angry and hateful things about me to my face, it:

    a. Makes me feel annoyed
    b. Makes me feel that I will be glad when he is past this stage
    c. Pleases me that he feels free to express himself
    d. Makes me feel like punishing him
    e. Makes me feel like telling him not to talk that way to me

16. When my child shows a deep interest in something I don't think is important it:

    a. Makes me realize he has interests of his own
    b. Makes me want to help him find ways to make the most of this interest
    c. Makes me feel disappointed in him
    d. Makes me want to know more about his interests
    e. Makes me wish he were more interested in the things I think are important for him

17. When my child is unable to do some things as well as others in his group, I:

    a. Tell him he must try to do as well as the others
    b. Encourage him to keep trying
    c. Tell him that no one can do everything well
    d. Call his attention to the things he does well
    e. Help him make the most of the activities which he can do

18. When my child wants to do something which I am sure will lead to disappointment for him, I:

    a. Occasionally let him carry such an activity to its conclusion
    b. Don't let him do it
    c. Advise him not to do it
    d. Help him with it in order to ease the disappointment
    e. Point out what is likely to happen

19. When my child acts silly and giggly, it:

    a. Makes me feel that I will be glad when he is past this stage
    b. Pleases me that he feels free to express himself
    c. Makes me feel like punishing him
    d. Makes me feel like telling him to stop
    e. Makes me feel annoyed

20. When my child is faced with two or more choices and has to choose only one, it:

    a. Makes me feel that I should tell him which choice to make and why
    b. Makes me feel that I should point out the advantages and disadvantages
    c. Makes me hope that I have prepared him to choose wisely
    d. Makes me want to encourage him to make his own choice
    e. Makes me want to make the decision for him

21. When my child is unable to do something which I think is important for him, I:

    a. Tell him he must do better
    b. Help him make the most of the things which he can do
    c. Ask him to tell me more about the things which he can do
    d. Tell him that no one can do everything
    e. Encourage him to keep trying

22. When my child disagrees with me about something which I think is important, I:

    a. Tell him he shouldn't disagree with me
    b. Make him quit
    c. Listen to his side of the problem and change my mind if I am wrong
    d. Tell him maybe we can do it his way another time
    e. Explain that I am doing what is best for him

23. When my child is unable to do some things as well as others in his group, it:

    a. Makes me realize that he can't be best in everything
    b. Makes me wish he could do as well
    c. Makes me feel embarrassed
    d. Makes me want to help him find success in the things he can do
    e. Makes me want to know more about the things he can do well

24. When my child makes decisions without consulting me it:

    a. Makes me hope that I have prepared him adequately to make his decisions
    b. Makes me wish he would consult me
    c. Makes me feel disturbed
    d. Makes me want to restrict his freedom
    e. Pleases me to see that as he grows he needs me less

25. When my child says angry and hateful things about me to my face, I:

    a. Tell him it's all right to feel that way, but help him find other ways of expressing himself
    b. Tell him I know how he feels
    c. Pay no attention to him
    d. Tell him he shouldn't say such things to me
    e. Make him quit

26. When my child kicks, hits and knocks his things about, I:

    a. Make him quit
    b. Tell him it is all right to feel that way, but help him find other ways of expressing himself
    c. Tell him he shouldn't do such things
    d. Tell him I know how he feels
    e. Pay no attention to him

27. When my child prefers to do things with his friends rather than with his family, it:

    a. Makes me wish he would spend more time with us
    b. Makes me feel resentful
    c. Pleases me to see his interests widening to other people
    d. Makes me feel he doesn't appreciate us
    e. Makes me realize that he is growing up

28. When my child wants to do something which I am sure will lead to disappointment for him, it:

    a. Makes me hope that I have prepared him to meet disappointment
    b. Makes me wish he didn't have to meet unpleasant experiences
    c. Makes me want to keep him from doing it
    d. Makes me realize that ocaasionally such an experience will be good for him
    e. Makes me want to postpone these experiences

29. When my child is not interested in some of the usual activities of his age group, I:

    a. Try to help him realize that it is important to be interested in the same things as others in his group
    b. Call his attention to the activities in which he is interested
    c. Tell him it is all right if he isn't interested in the same things
    d. See to it that he does the same things as others in his group
    e. Help him find ways of making the most of his interests

30. When my child shows a deep interest in something I don't think is important, I:

    a. Let him go ahead with his interest
    b. Ask him to tell me more about this interest
    c. Help him find ways to make the most of this interest
    d. Do everything I can to discourage his interest in it
    e. Try to interest him in more worthwhile things

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION !!

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER

SAMPLE INVITATION TO CONTROL GROUP

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT
UNIVERSITY PARK, PENNSYLVANIA 16802

Individual and Family Consultation Center
Catharine Beecher House

Area Code 814
865-1751

March 28, 1975

Dear Foster Parent:

Recently you received an invitation from the County Child Welfare Services to participate in a Foster Parent Training Program. The structure of this program requires that it be presented to only ten couples at one time. We regret that we are not able to run a sufficient number of courses at one time so that all of County's foster parents can participate. I am certain that in the near future another group will be organized and you will have an opportunity to participate.

In the meantime, you can do us a great service in our efforts to continue to provide foster care training. It is necessary for us to demonstrate to our funding agency that foster parents can benefit from training. You can help us to do this by filling out the questionnaires that accompany this letter. You will be asked to complete some similar questionnaires in about ten weeks. Your husband or wife may also receive a packet of questionnaires. Please fill them out separately; it is not necessary (and we do not expect) that your answers will be the same as your husband's or wife's on all questions.

Your answers will be tallied along with those of about three hundred other parents in Western Pennsylvania. Your name will not be released or associated with your answers. The County Child Welfare Services will not receive any of the information you give us.

Please answer each question as honestly and completely as you can. There are no right or wrong answers. Just tell us how it is for you.

Some of the questions ask about one foster child. If you have more than one, answer these questions for the foster child presently in your home who is closest to ten years old.

Please return the questionnaires in the enclosed, self-addressed envelope. No postage is necessary. Please mail this packet to us before

Thank you so much for helping us to continue to help foster parents.

Sincerely yours,

Miriam Aberg

Miriam Aberg
Project Coordinator
Foster Parent Training Project
814-865-1767

Louise Guerney

Louise Guerney, Ph.D.
Project Director